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14. ABSTRACT Under this proposal we sought to identify genes that drive the homing of invasive primary breast cancer to its metastatic sites in the brain, lungs and bone marrow. We used phage display cDNA libraries generated from human breast cancer cells for in vivo selection from targeted organs. Ten distinct genes were identified. For the different sites, no overlap between the genes identified was observed. The genes identified were not known to contribute to breast cancer metastasis. We found mRNA expression in archival, clinical samples of formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded in vasive breast cancer tissues by in situ hybridization. Functional studies that use the invasion of breast cancer cells into endothelial monolayers are used to evaluate the contribution of these newly identified metastasis genes to breast cancer cell attachment to endothelial cells.					
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INTRODUCTION

The most severe form of clinical breast cancer is spread to distant organs or cancer metastasis¹⁻³. Distinct organ-specific spreading of cancers was first described by Dr. Steven Paget in the initial volume of the Lancet (1889, Vol 1, pages 571-73). Dr. Paget coined the term of a necessary fit between “seed and soil”, i.e. the cancer cell (“the seed”) and the target organ bed (“the soil”) for organ-specific cancer cell seeding. The advent of molecular biology and refined tool for protein display has now enabled us to tackle this century old question of specific molecules that drive this seed / soil interaction. Under this grant we sought to isolate surface proteins from metastatic human breast cancer cells that can drive organ-specific spread. We sought to isolate such proteins using cDNAs from human breast cancer cells that we inserted into T7 phage to display a single protein or protein fragment on the surface of individual phage particle as a single copy each. We then selected phage that are captured in distinct organs of metastasis in mouse models and from them isolated the human genes coding for signaling ligands in the cancer cell “seed”.

In addition to a mechanistic understanding of drivers of breast cancer cell metastasis genes discovered here will be useful for diagnosis of patients with high risk cancer as well as a therapeutic targeting in the future using specific antibodies targeted to the metastasis ligands. Here we provide the final report of the project as well as an outlook.

In the original application we had proposed the following tasks:

Task 1: Identification of protein fragments that allow for organ-specific metastasis.

Task 2: Study expression patterns of candidate homing genes.

Task 3: Study the functional role of candidate homing genes.

BODY

Summary of results from previous years:

First cycle:

Achievements:

1. We established the method to hybridize cDNAs isolated from phage display to mRNA in paraffin-embedded breast cancer and other tissue samples.
2. Expression studies with breast cancer and colon cancer archival tissue samples showed that liver homing genes that play a role in liver metastasis of colon cancer do not appear to play a significant role in metastatic breast cancer.

Conclusions:

We concluded that liver homing genes isolated from colon cancer cells show selective expression in colon cancer metastasis to the liver and in primary colon cancers. However, no selective expression was seen in breast cancer samples supporting the notion that breast cancer organ metastasis is driven by a distinct set of genes / proteins.

Second cycle:

Achievements:

1. We used a human breast cancer cell (MDA-MB231) cDNA phage display library to isolate populations of phage that lodge into bone marrow, brain and lungs.
2. We established selection of organ selective homing of phage using this library. We found organ selective enrichment for the bone marrow, brain and the lungs. Whilst selection for bone marrow and brain took several rounds, the lung enrichment was achieved within one round of selection.

Conclusions:

We concluded that have selected a population of phage that can drive bone marrow, brain and lung selective homing. It appears that the selection for lung homing is the most efficacious.

Third cycle:

Work accomplished during the third award cycle:

1. Isolation of gene fragments of organ homing genes and generation probes for in situ hybridization.

We isolated a total of ten distinct human gene fragments from the inserts organ selective homing phage. Figure 1 summarizes the findings. Some isolates were repeats and thus several annotations are in the same bin (e.g. lu-21, 25 and 17). From these inserts cDNA probes of an length of 500 to 600 bases were generated in plasmid vectors for in-situ hybridization of tissue samples for expressed mRNA. This approach was developed in year 1 for liver homing genes and is now applied here to brain, lung and bone marrow homing genes. The probe lengths for those gene fragments completed are given in Figure 1.

From the respective plasmids antisense and sense transcripts were generated and labelled for in situ hybridization. Figure 1 shows for which of the genes probes have been generated successfully. Probes are tested for their functionality first by a dot blot.

Target organ & Clone-#	probe length	ISH
Brain		
brain-1		
brain-16	500 bp	yes
brain-18		
Bone Marrow		
bm-3	555 bp	yes
bm-12	555 bp	yes
bm-17		
bm-35	519 bp	no
Lung		
lu-9		
lu-21,25,17	597 bp	no
lu-27,36		

Figure 1: Phage display inserts isolated from different target organs. From the brain and the lungs three distinct inserts were isolated for each organ. From the bone marrow four distinct inserts were isolated. For half of these we have so far generated probes for analysis of gene expression by in situ hybridization. The probe length is given in base pairs. We have tested three of the probes successfully for in situ hybridization (ISH).

2. In situ hybridization of archival breast cancer samples for expression of organ homing genes isolated.

The probes generated (see Fig. 1) were used for analysis of tissue specimen. Figure 2 shows an example with two different archival invasive breast cancer specimen. These tissues are formalin-fixed and paraffin-embedded. Hybridization for three of the genes isolated is shown comparing antisense (AS) and sense probe. The AS probe gives a stronger cytoplasmic signal (brown stain) than the sense probe. This indicates that the respective mRNA is expressed in these invasive breast cancers.

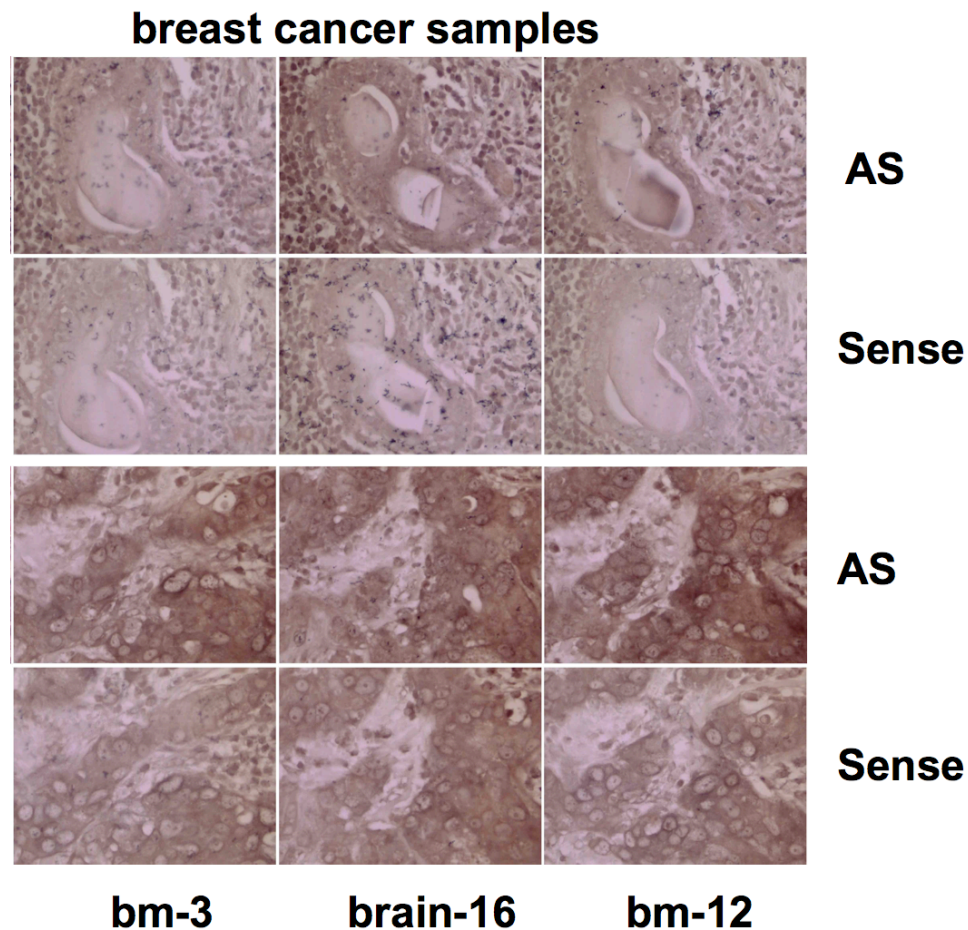


Figure 2: In situ hybridization for mRNA expression of three organ-selective homing genes (see Fig. 1) using formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded archival human breast cancer samples. AS = antisense probe; sense = sense probe.

3. Functional analysis of organ homing genes.

For the functional analysis, we have established a real-time, in vitro assay system in which breast cancer cells are incubated with an intact endothelial monolayer. Upon attachment of the cancer cells, the monolayer changes its electric conductance. Addition of recombinant metastasis homing protein or depletion of metastasis genes from cancer cells is used to assess functionality of the homing protein studied. Figure 3 shows the approach we have established.

We observed that addition of human breast cancer cells will reduce resistance of a monolayer of recipient endothelial cells significantly within 6 hours. Addition of recombinant homing protein(s) should alter the ability of breast cancer cells to attach to the monolayer: This addition may inhibit attachment if the homing proteins function as steric inhibitors. It may enhance the attachment of cancer cells if homing proteins signal to the endothelial layer. These studies are ongoing with the production of recombinant homing proteins.

In parallel, we have initiated depletion of homing gene expression from MDA-MB231 breast cancer cells. This depletion is done by transfection with siRNA targeting homing gene mRNA. We have achieved knockdown (by siRNA) of some of the homing proteins in MDA-MB231 breast cancer cells. The knock-down is monitored by quantitative real-time PCR of the respective mRNA relative to GAPDH and Actin (loading controls). It is expected that depletion of one or several homing genes will reduce the ability of the breast cancer cells to attach to the endothelial monolayer. These experiments are ongoing.

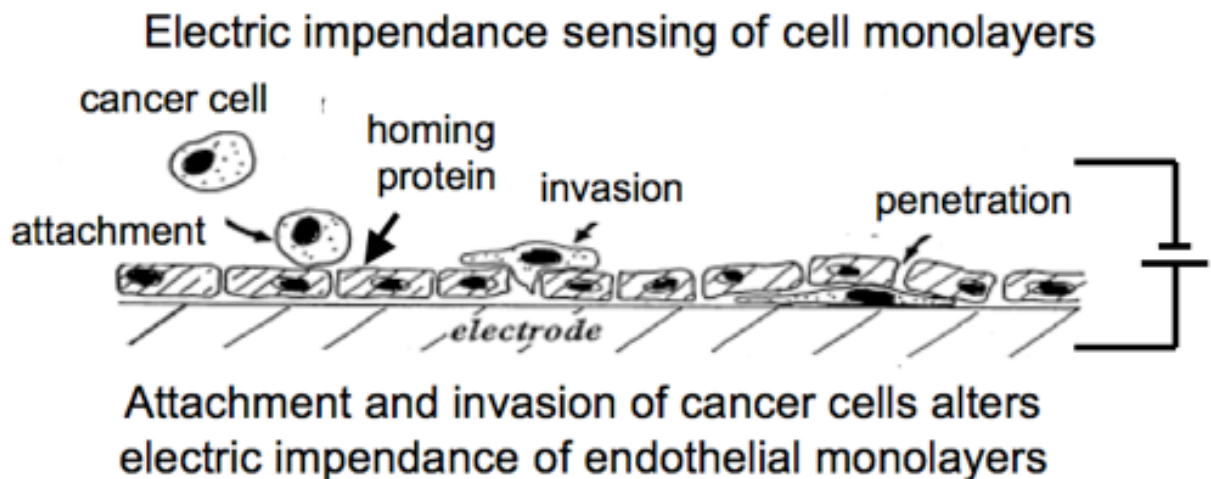


Figure 3: Functional assay of breast cancer cell attachment to endothelial monolayers. Electrical resistance is used to monitor the impact of cancer cell attachment to the endothelial monolayer. The assay uses 96-well type wells with an electrode on the bottom of the well. Keese et al (2002) described the approach (Ref. 4).

Methods:

Breast cancer cell / endothelial attachment monitored by electric resistance.

Alterations in the endothelial cell monolayer are monitored by electric resistance of the monolayer as described by Keese et al (2002).

INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA.

1. We conclude that we have selected sets of candidate homing genes of breast cancer to the bone marrow, lungs and brain.
2. We find expression of genes tested in archival human breast cancer samples using in situ hybridization.
3. We have set up a functional approach to assess the significance of the homing genes to endothelial attachment of human breast cancer cell.

KEY RESEARCH ACCOMPLISHMENTS (all years)

1. We established selection of organ selective homing of phage from a human breast cancer cell line using an animal model for in vivo selection.
2. We showed organ selective enrichment for bone marrow, brain and lungs as the major target sites of human breast cancer.
3. We found that genes selected are expressed in archival human breast cancers.
4. We established siRNA mediated knockdown of expression of the genes in cell lines using quantitative RT PCR.
5. We established a real-time assay to monitor cancer cell / endothelial attachment to assay the function of the homing genes identified.

REPORTABLE OUTCOMES

R.T. Henke, A. Maitra, S. Paik and A. Wellstein (2005) Gene expression analysis in sections and tissue microarrays of archival tissues by mRNA in situ hybridization *Histol Histopathol* 20: 225-237.

A. Wellstein, M. Schmidt, R.T. Henke, K. McDonnell, A.T. Riegel (2005) Cancer Metastasis homing genes. Era of Hope Meeting Philadelphia. Abstract and Oral Presentation

A. Wellstein, M. Schmidt (2008) Discovery of cancer metastasis homing genes. Era of Hope Meeting Baltimore. Abstract BC010432. Poster Presentation

Publication and abstracts are included in the APPENDIX.

CONCLUSIONS

Under this award we identified a set of ten gene candidates with a novel function as organ selective, breast cancer metastasis homing genes. Expression analysis and functional analyses have been initiated under this proposal.

- We established an approach to identify organ selective homing genes using in vivo phage display of human breast cancer cell line-derived cDNAs.
- Distinct sets of genes were found from organ selective homing to bone marrow or brain or lungs, major metastasis sites of human breast cancer.
- We found mRNA expression of selected genes in archival human breast cancers.
- We established siRNA mediated knockdown of expression of the genes for future studies of their contribution to metastasis.

Taking this project into the future based on the results obtained under this award, we plan to

- extend the expression analysis in breast cancer tissues to all homing genes identified
- extend the expression analysis to a series of breast cancers with different stages and outcome
- establish a quantitative assay of gene expression by real-time RT-PCR with breast cancer tissues
- establish gene function in vitro using siRNA-mediated knockdown of single or of several of the homing genes – endothelial attachment will be the read-out for this
- establish gene function in vivo using shRNA knockdown of homing genes – tumor growth and organ seeding will be the read-out for this

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LIST OF PERSONNEL RECEIVING PAY FROM THE RESEARCH

Anton Wellstein, P.I.
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APPENDICES

Abstract Era of Hope Meeting Philadelphia 2005
Abstract Era of Hope Meeting Baltimore 2008
Paper Henke et al. 2005

CANCER METASTASIS HOMING GENES

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Tumor metastasis initiates with cancer cell evasion from the primary site and progresses with seeding into a distant organ site. Distinct endothelial surface molecules on the vascular bed of target tissues are thought to contribute to organ specific spreading of cancers.

Under this proposal we planned to identify of genes expressed in human breast cancer cells that support homing of the tumor cells to distant organs. To achieve this, cDNAs from metastatic cancer cells were displayed as fusion proteins on the surface of phage. Size selection of the cDNAs was for 300 to 3,000 nucleotides to ensure that large enough size binding domains would be presented on the phage. Phage expressing these libraries were then injected intravenously into mice and homing genes were identified from phage particles retained by the lungs, bone marrow or liver vasculature. Over several rounds of selection. Blockade of tumor/endothelial attachment by the selected metastasis homing proteins was used as one approach to assess the tumor cell/endothelial interaction. In addition, expression of the candidate genes in human cancer and normal tissue samples using in situ hybridization of tissue microarrays was used. For this, formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissues were used.

With this approach we identified only few genes with a known signature for endothelial attachment and known to be differentially expressed in metastatic cancer. Most of the genes identified were unknown to function in tumor cell growth, invasion or metastasis. A subset of genes analyzed to date were differentially expressed in cancers of different primary origin (breast versus prostate versus colorectal cancer) and differentially expressed in metastatic versus non-metastatic disease and versus normal tissues. Functional studies in cell culture showed that phage expressing these homing genes can block endothelial attachment of tumor cells.

We conclude that primary tumors that have a high propensity to metastasize will show a "metastatic signature" and express genes that serve as their homing signals to distant organ sites. Seeds of organ metastasis appear to express the homing genes at high rate and we hypothesize that such homing proteins could serve as targets to eradicate occult tumor metastases.

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DISCOVERY OF CANCER METASTASIS HOMING GENES

BC010432

Anton Wellstein and Marcel Schmidt *Georgetown University*

Breast cancer metastasis initiates with cancer cell evasion from the primary site in the breast tissue (i.e., the site of tumor initiation) and progresses with seeding into local lymph nodes and ultimately a distant organ site. It is thought that endothelial surface molecules on the vascular bed of metastasis target tissues contribute to organ specific, metastatic spread of cancer in general and of breast cancer in particular. It is thus hoped to understand the metastatic process at the molecular level and to be able to target molecules critical for this ultimately outcome defining phenotype of breast cancer, i.e., organ metastasis.

To identify genes expressed in human breast cancers that support homing of the tumor cells to distant organs we used established human breast cancer cells with a high propensity to metastasize. We harvested mRNA from human metastatic breast cancer cells and expressed cDNA fragments from this mRNA pool as fusion proteins with gene10 on the surface of phage. We assured that the cDNA sizes were at least 300 nucleotides in length libraries created from this. By this we hoped to cover a significant portion or domains of a given candidate protein that modulates metastasis. Phage expressing these representative libraries were then injected into the circulation of mice and phage particles bound to the endothelia of the lungs, the bone marrow or liver vasculature were rescued thereafter. Over several rounds of selection, the populations rescued were purified further. Blockade of tumor/endothelial attachment by the selected metastasis homing proteins was used as one approach to assess the tumor cell/endothelial interaction. In addition, mRNA expression of the candidate genes in human breast cancer, other cancers (as controls) and normal tissue samples were monitored using in situ hybridization. For this, formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissues were used.

We identified some genes with a known signature for endothelial attachment and some that are differentially expressed in metastatic cancers. We also found genes that were differentially expressed in cancers of different primary origin (breast versus prostate versus colorectal cancer) and differentially expressed in metastatic versus non-metastatic disease and normal tissues. Functional studies in cell culture showed that phage expressing the homing genes can block endothelial attachment of tumor cells.

Conclusions: Primary breast cancers that have a high propensity to metastasize will reveal that phenotype by expressing defined genes that support their homing to distant organ sites. Evaluating such homing proteins as targets to eradicate occult tumor metastases is the next logical step from these results.

This work was supported by the U.S. Army Medical Research and Materiel Command under DAMD17-02-1-0398.

Review

Gene expression analysis in sections and tissue microarrays of archival tissues by mRNA *in situ* hybridization

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Summary. Altered expression of genes in diseased tissues can prognosticate a distinct natural progression of the disease as well as predict sensitivity or resistance to particular therapies. Archival tissues from patients with a known medical history and treatments are an invaluable resource to validate the utility of candidate genes for prognosis and prediction of therapy outcomes. However, stored tissues with associated long-term follow-up information typically are formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded specimen and this can severely restrict the methods applicable for gene expression analysis. We report here on the utility of tissue microarrays (TMAs) that use valuable tissues sparingly and provide a platform for simultaneous analysis of gene expression in several hundred samples. In particular, we describe a stable method applicable to mRNA expression screening in such archival tissues. TMAs are constructed from sections of small drill cores, taken from tissue blocks of archival tissues and multiple samples can thus be arranged on a single microscope slide. We used mRNA *in situ* hybridization (ISH) on >500 full sections and >100 TMAs for >10 different cDNAs that yielded >10,000 data points. We provide detailed experimental protocols that can be implemented without major hurdles in a molecular pathology laboratory and discuss quantitative analysis and the advantages and limitations of ISH. We conclude that gene expression analysis in archival tissues by ISH is reliable and particularly useful when no protein detection methods are available for a candidate gene.

Key words: mRNA, *In situ* hybridization, Tissue microarray, Expression analysis

Introduction

The number of genes or cDNAs that are being identified as potential contributors to different diseases is rapidly increasing due to ever expanding gene expression screening with cDNA microarrays. Expression analyses of chosen candidate genes in a large series of tissue samples are then of crucial importance to address the relevance of such candidates as well as translation to routine applications once that relevance is established. In general, expression of a gene can be investigated at the mRNA or protein level. However, protein expression analysis is frequently limited by the lack of a suitable antibody, leaving only the option of mRNA studies. This problem is compounded if only cDNA fragments are known (e.g. EST's) or have been identified.

Even if protein analyses can be performed, mRNA studies still provide important additional information, for example by detailing changes in the efficiency of protein translation during different steps of malignant progression of a tumor or with regard to different developmental or hormonal stages (Steel et al., 1988). The analysis of the mRNA in conjunction with protein expression also allows further quality control for both methods. mRNA studies may also serve to identify the cells of origin for secreted proteins.

Although initial studies can often be performed with fresh frozen material, the bulk of any archive of a pathology institute or a clinical study archive, like that of the NSABP, is comprised of tissue samples fixed with formalin and embedded in paraffin. Therefore, the most informative and precious samples (for which clinical

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Abbreviations. AIB1: Amplified in breast cancer 1; FGF-BP: Fibroblast growth factor binding protein; ALK: Anaplastic lymphoma kinase; PTN: Pleiotrophin; ISH: *in situ* hybridization; IHC: immunohistochemistry; TMA: Tissue microarray.

follow-up and diagnostic, demographic, therapeutic etc. information are available) will often be only available as paraffin blocks. In order to achieve maximum efficiency and stability, any large-scale expression analysis on tissues should also consider the use of tissue microarrays (TMA), constructed from paraffin embedded “donor” tissue blocks to avoid depletion of resources. To approach this we will address several crucial points in this paper: 1) utility of formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded archival tissues; 2) the ability to distinguish expression in different cell types in heterogeneous tissues; 3) sensitivity and specificity; 4) applicability of the same protocol for different genes in different tissues; application to tissue microarrays (TMAs) for high throughput studies; and 5) evaluation of results from TMAs

Formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded archival samples for RNA studies

When using tissue for the ISH or for other histological application, it is necessary to consider the processing of the tissue prior to the actual experiment, in particular, fixation and embedding. Common fixation methods include freezing (liquid nitrogen), ethanol and a variety of formalin-based solutions. Unless tissue is stored frozen, a durable embedding must be performed. Paraffin will be used most frequently but special plastic formulations are an alternative.

When investigating mRNA, many investigators consider fresh frozen tissue as the best choice. However, such tissues are limited and rarely have extensive pathological or long-term clinical follow-up data linked to them. In contrast, formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded archival tissue typically will have more long-term information associated. Studies to assess the relevance of a gene or mRNA will therefore, at some point, face the necessity to investigate sections from such archival sources. Whether mRNA in such tissues is preserved sufficiently and with good representation is of concern although this also applies to proteins. In general, formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded samples have been shown to be useful for RNA studies and to produce stable results compared to other fixation techniques (Fink et al., 1998; Jin et al., 1999; Van Deerlin et al., 2002; Bismar et al., 2003; Kabbarah et al., 2003). Typically, mRNA fragments of up to 100 bases can be quantified from paraffin tissues by RT-PCR with good sensitivity and specificity. Longer consecutive sequences prove more difficult to detect. This is likely due to mRNA fragmentation during the extraction process and may not apply as much to *in situ* hybridization, which leaves the targeted mRNA in its locus, i.e. “*in situ*”. We usually design relatively large probes (>500 bases) for *in situ* hybridization to achieve maximum hybridization efficiency with variable mRNA fragments and thus try to minimize the impact of mRNA fragmentation. Our experience with a series of probes in very different tissues is presented below.

Methods to investigate RNA expression

Common ways to analyze mRNA expression in tissue samples include Northern blot, reverse transcription with consecutive PCR (RT-PCR) or quantitative real time RT-PCR, *in situ* RT-PCR and *in situ* hybridization (ISH) for mRNA as well as cDNA microarrays. Major concerns are sensitivity and specificity, tissue heterogeneity of samples (i.e. tumors intermixed with normal stroma) and heterogeneous expression within one cell type in different areas of a sample. Unless laser capture micro dissection is performed (Fend and Raffeld, 2000) to isolate a particular cell type (for example cancer cells), or an *in situ* method is used, contamination with other cell types often leads to problems in interpreting the results in a “pooled RNA” assay by the other methods.

In situ methods allow the evaluation of mRNA expression separately for particular cell types and tissue compartments due to the preservation of the histological architecture. For example, we observed – quite unexpectedly – that the receptor for the growth factor pleiotrophin (PTN), Anaplastic Lymphoma Kinase (ALK) is expressed in neo-vascular endothelial cells in pancreatic adenocarcinoma, glioblastoma and colon carcinoma (unpublished data). Endothelial cells of normal vessels did lack expression. This information would have been lost when using a Northern blot or RT-PCR from tissue homogenates as the expression would have been attributed to the tumor cells, which also express the ALK receptor.

Due to the preservation of the histology, the ISH also allows for relatively easy identification of artifacts, low tissue quality, and necrotic and autolytic tissues. In addition, the mRNA expression in cancer cells can be compared selectively with that of the appropriate reference cells rather than a “whole organ background”. For example, when investigating breast cancers or pancreatic adenocarcinoma, epithelial cells in breast tissue and those of the small pancreatic ducts, respectively, can be identified and used as a reference. Stroma cells and – in the case of pancreas – acini cells, which are not the cells of origin for the mentioned cancers, can be easily excluded from the analysis as well as those samples, which do not contain appropriate reference cells.

In spite of these advantages of the *in situ* hybridization method, some issues need serious consideration: Although a semi-quantitative evaluation of expression levels can be achieved by assessing staining intensity and frequency, real time PCR will allow for quantification of expression over a wider range with more precision. Also, protein studies will obviously generate qualitatively distinct information location, post-translational modification and possibly activation status.

Overview of the in situ hybridization

Recent work shows that ISH has advantages in

sensitivity and specificity over *in situ* RT-PCR (Steel et al., 2001) further suggesting that the ISH is an established and reliable method. Two types of probes are established for the mRNA *in situ* hybridization of frozen or paraffin embedded tissue: Radioisotope-labeled (^{33}P or ^{35}S) and non-isotopic (e.g. Digoxigenin labeled) probes. Digoxigenin-labeling methods do provide a higher resolution of the signal localization with comparable sensitivity and specificity (Steel et al., 1998). In addition, the problems of handling and disposal of radioactive isotopes are eliminated. Also, with the right chromate to visualize Digoxigenin labeled probes, signals can still be evaluated after a long time, whereas the half-life of isotopes is limited (24 days for ^{33}P , 87 days for ^{35}S) and requires higher experimental effort to preserve the signal (for example by photographic film). We used Digoxigenin labeled probes for recent studies and found them to generate better quality results and easier to handle in comparison to radioactive probes (e.g. for FGF-BP: Digoxigenin (Kagan et al., 2003; Ray et al., 2003) versus radioactive (Kurtz et al., 1997).

Detection of the Digoxigenin after the probe hybridization is usually performed with antibodies or antibody-fragments. These can either be labeled directly with an enzyme (HRP or AP), biotin or fluorescein/rhodamine. Alternatively, unlabelled primary anti-Digoxigenin antibodies can be detected with an appropriate secondary antibody.

Flourescein based systems have the lowest sensitivity and should be used only for high abundance mRNAs. For most mRNAs, we observed good

sensitivity with AP conjugated FAB-fragments. Low abundance mRNAs, which cannot be detected with AP, can sometimes be visualized by HRP labeled FAB-fragments with consecutive tyramide signal amplification. However, this protocol is significantly more expensive and usually not required if the hybridization is first optimized by using long mRNA probes at high concentration.

The ISH method reported here is based on a protocol reported by (Panoskaltsis-Mortari and Bucy, 1995) and has been successfully used in our lab for >500 slides, including more than 100 tissue microarrays and more than ten different mRNAs/cDNAs have been studied. An overview of the genes and tissues studied so far is given in Table 1. Some of the data are already published (Kurtz et al., 1997; Mashour et al., 1999; Schulte et al., 2000; List et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2001; Klomp et al., 2002; Powers et al., 2002; Kagan et al., 2003; Henke et al., 2004).

Tissue microarray overview

The use of tissue microarrays (TMAs) (Kononen et al., 1998) for ISH adds further power to any histological screening approach and thus makes an ISH even more attractive, compared to Northern blot and PCR (Bubendorf et al., 2001). This is particularly true, when investigating a novel cDNA of interest. In brief, a TMA contains a large number of cylindrical tissue cores from paraffin embedded full sections ("donor" blocks) arrayed into a "receptor" paraffin block. For an extensive review – critically discussing the characteristics, advantages,

Table 1. Overview of probes and tissues used with the ISH protocol described.

GENE/cDNA	PROBE LENGTH	NORMAL AND NEOPLASTIC TISSUE ANALYZED	PROTEIN ANALYZED	REFERENCE
h Pleiotrophin	551	BC(T), CC(T), PC(T), GBM, BileC(T), AC (T)	Yes	Klomp et al., 2002
Anaplastic lymphoma kinase	648 (*)	BC(T), CC(T), PC(T), GBM, BileC(T), AC (T)	No	Powers et al., 2002
Midkine	>500	Neurofibroma, Skin	Yes	Mashour et al., 2002
m Pleiotrophin	547	mouse mammary glands	No	Unpublished
h fibroblast growth factor binding protein 1	>500	BC(T), CC(T), PC(T), AC (T)	Yes	Kagan et al., 2003
m fibroblast growth factor binding protein 1	>500	mouse colon, colon adenoma and skin	Yes	Ray et al., 2003
amplified in breast cancer 1 (AIB1)	679	BC(T), PC(T), PanIN(T), ProstateC	Yes	List et al., 2001; Henke et al., 2004
transgene mRNA: $\Delta 3\text{-AIB1/pcDNA3}$	300 (**)	mouse mammary glands (normal mice, and mice transgene for D3-AIB1/pcDNA3)	No	Tilli et al., 2004
<i>Metastasis homing genes</i>				
LS42	656	BC(T), CC (T), Insulinoma(T), ProstateC(T)	No	Unpublished
JN40	874	BC(T), CC (T), Insulinoma(T), ProstateC(T)	No	Unpublished
SW48	429	BC(T), CC (T), Insulinoma(T), ProstateC(T)	No	Unpublished
SW50	750	BC(T), CC (T), Insulinoma(T), ProstateC(T)	No	Unpublished
LS45	715	BC(T), CC (T), Insulinoma(T), ProstateC(T)	No	Unpublished

h: human; m: mouse; (T): BC: normal breast and breast cancer; CC: normal colon and colon cancer (primary and metastases); PC: normal pancreas and pancreatic adenocarcinoma; PanIN: normal pancreas and pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia; GBM: glioblastoma multiforme; BileC: bile, liver and bile duct Cancer; AC: intestine, pancreas and ampullary carcinoma; ProstateC: normal prostate and prostate cancer (primary and metastases); (*): The probe for detection of anaplastic lymphoma kinase was directed against the coding region of the extracellular ligand-binding domain and does not hybridize with translocation products like NPM-ALK (Duyster et al., 2001). (**): To investigate expression of a human $\Delta 3\text{-AIB1}$ transgene, introduced into nude mice, we designed a probe for the human-specific 3'UTR (140 bp) and the consecutive 160 bp from the expression vector used to introduce the gene, resulting in a 300 bp probe.

disadvantages and sources of TMAs – we wish to refer to a publication in a recent issue of this journal (Mobasher et al., 2004).

The first obvious advantage of TMAs is that a large number of samples can be investigated with less experimental effort while retaining the previously discussed features of the ISH. In addition, TMA allow for optimal method control since all samples (cores) on a TMA slide will have the exact same conditions before and during the experiment. In particular, all samples (cores) will have had the same time between sectioning and staining, the same hybridization conditions and the same concentrations of probe, antibodies, enzyme and chromate (Bubendorf et al., 2001). Therefore, the use of a TMA adds further advantages with regard to the evaluation of the observable maximum and minimum expression levels, thus eliminating a slide-to-slide variability often seen when investigating a series of regular sections. Thus, categorization of expression levels of all cores can be easily performed. In addition, cores with artifacts and low tissues quality or mRNA degradation can be quickly identified by comparison with other cores since other reasons for the observed variations due to the method are eliminated. Furthermore, since up to 200 sections can be cut from a TMA block (Kononen et al., 1998), comparison of the expression of different mRNAs or proteins on parallel sections can be achieved with considerably less effort for a large number of genes or cDNAs. We therefore began using TMAs very early for ISH in order to maximize the number of samples and the stability of results.

Evaluation of ISH staining results for TMAs

Obviously, it is of concern whether the small tissue sample present in a TMA is representative for the original full section. This concern has been addressed in different studies showing that results from a TMA with three or four sample cores per tissue are highly representative compared to results of full sections (Camp et al., 2000; Nocito et al., 2001; Simon et al., 2001, 2004). For some investigations, as few as two cores were sufficient (Camp et al., 2000) though we strongly recommend a redundancy of four cores from our experience, due to the frequent loss of cores or poor quality of a given core. In addition, it is worth mentioning that any “regular section” only presents approximately 0.3% of the volume of a typical tumor (Simon et al., 2004) and is thus already “biased” significantly.

Several approaches have been used previously to generate results from TMAs with multiple cores of tissue samples that reflect most accurately the expression in the tissue examined (the “case”). Most of these were reported for immunohistochemical studies. In principle, three obvious approaches can be taken: (i) only the areas with a high expression (“hot spots”) are selected or (ii) all tissues belonging to the same case are evaluated for their average expression or (iii) a binary scoring system

is used where “negative” is defined as “all cores negative” and positive as “at least one core/area is positive” (Kononen et al., 1998; Moch et al., 1999). (i) The first method of choosing “hot spots” for the evaluation was frequently used to assess angiogenesis (CD31) or proliferation markers (Ki-67) (Nocito et al., 2001; Rubin et al., 2002; Chiesa-Vottero et al., 2003), and did show good concordance with the results generated from full tissue sections. (ii) The evaluation of average expression was used in most studies, for example for the evaluation of the Her2/neu (Simon et al., 2001), however the exact evaluation systems used did vary between different studies or were not described in detail and are controversial (Paik, 2003). (iii) The binary system was common for markers like ER and PR expression, similar to the assessment of these for regular sections. Recently evaluation methods utilizing image recognition software have been developed and have been successfully used for immunohistochemistry stained TMA (Mobasher et al., 2004). We have tested one of these systems but found it not applicable for *in situ* hybridization due to variations in staining intensities and color, low overall intensity when compared to immunohistochemistry and especially due to the lack of nuclear counterstaining which prevented the software from correctly recognizing the “target structures” and cells. All these problems could however be easily solved by manual evaluation.

In summary, no standard evaluations system has been established so far for the ISH or IHC. Whether a particular gene is likely to be of significance due to a few “hot spots” of expression or because of broad expression will be different for distinct genes. We did therefore consider several approaches for our TMA studies. During our studies we investigated different genes on sequential sections of TMA and we will detail the considerations and methods established to evaluate them further below after the “Methods” section.

Methods

*General protocol for the *in situ* hybridization*

Specificity control considerations

The signal-noise ratio of each probe set (antisense and sense) should be established initially on full serial sections of diseased and normal tissue specimen. E.g. to assess expression of a given gene in a breast cancer tissue microarray (TMA) we first use two sets of serial sections from 20 invasive breast cancers and 20 normal breast samples. One set of these samples is hybridized with the antisense probe and one set with the sense probe in 9 one batch experiment. This initial experiment establishes the signal to be expected above a certain background. Also, full sections can later be used as a positive (antisense) and negative (sense) internal control when staining TMAs. With this control included in each experiment, it is reasonable to stain the TMA with an

antisense probe only and thus save this precious resource. Typically we will stain two sets of full sections with a sense and antisense probe along with a TMA that is stained with the antisense only.

Generation of probes

A flow chart of the steps is given in Fig. 1: First, a

suitable template sequence in the gene of interest is identified. The main criteria for this selection are uniqueness of the selected sequence and appropriate length. The match with other genes or cDNAs can be assessed using e.g. the BLAST search engine and the public database (NCBI, <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/BLAST>) and a <25% overall match should not cause cross-hybridization unless a consistent (>100 bp)

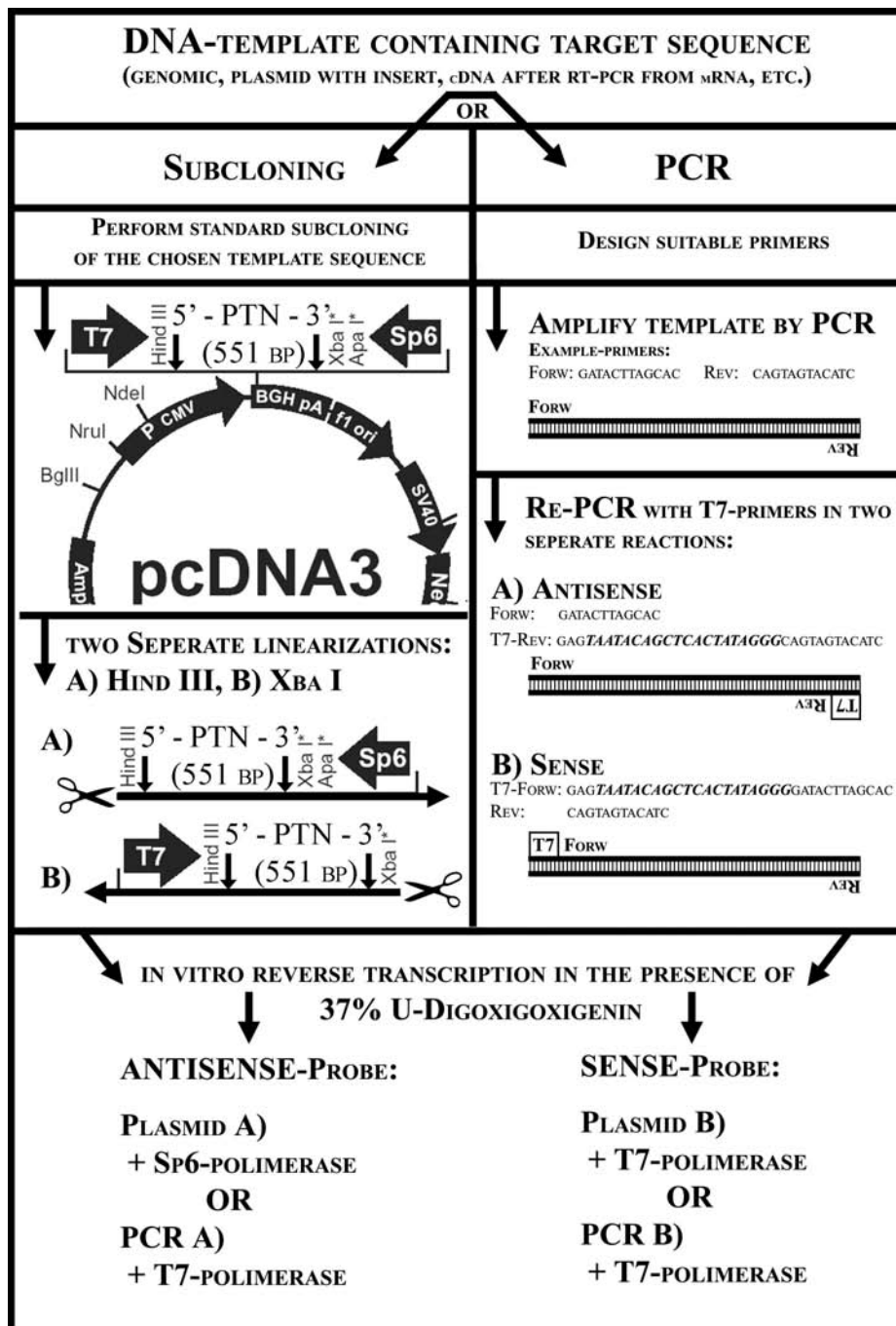


Fig. 1. Flowchart: Generating a Digoxigenin-labeled-RNA probe from a DNA template. Transcription-templates contain a T7 or Sp6 promoter sequence to be transcribed (bottom box). This can be generated in two distinct ways outlined on the left and right respectively. Left: The desired sequence (5'-gene-3') is subcloned into a suitable bacterial expression vector with consecutive linearization before OR after transcription. Each linearized plasmid then serves as the template for the antisense OR the sense probe. Right: A two-step PCR is performed from any suitable template containing the desired sequence. That sequence is first amplified with sequence-specific primers. The product is then gel-purified away from primers and used as a template for the second step. During the second PCR, either the forward OR the reverse primers are substituted. The replacement primer contains a short 5' non-specific sequence followed by the T7-sequence (bold-italic) and the primer-sequence that was used in the first PCR, at the 3' terminus.

subsequence shows a near-perfect (>90%) homology. In fact, we even tested a probe, designed for a human gene on mouse tissue, which was expressing the mouse homologue. Despite a >80% overall homology between the human probe and the mouse mRNA, we could not detect a signal, detailing the excellent sequence specificity of the ISH. An optimal length of a probe is between 500 and 700 base pairs. Second, to generate the RNA probes by reverse transcription a variety of DNAs can serve as a template. These templates must contain a T7 or Sp6 promoter sequence as a transcription start site. Two approaches can be used to add the T7 or Sp6 promoter sequences (see Fig. 1),

(i) subcloning of a fragment into a bacterial expression vector, which contains the promoters adjacent to the multiple cloning site (e.g. pcDNA3 or others from Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) or (ii) PCR with primers containing the T7-sequence in addition to the primers specific to the gene of interest. In general a vector construct is preferable since it will usually render a higher probe yield and is worth the additional effort of subcloning if a large series of experiments is to be performed for that sequence. Once the DNA-template is prepared, Digoxigenin labeled RNA probes are transcribed using the DIG RNA labeling kit (Roche Diagnostics Corp., Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Preparations and general considerations

The Digoxigenin labeled RNA probes are prepared using the DIG RNA labeling kit (Roche Diagnostics Corp., Indianapolis, IN) according to the manufacturer's protocol. From our experience we recommend a probe generated from 300 to 700 bp of consecutive cDNA sequence which is unique for the mRNA of interest, i.e. does not match any other sequence in a genomic or EST nucleotide-Blast search (NCBI).

Prevention of RNase contamination is crucial during preparation of the probe and on day 1 of the ISH. The workbench and all bottles, plastic containers, slide holders, beakers and graded cylinders to be used before or on day 1 are cleaned with RNase AWAY® and left overnight to dry completely. Sterile 15ml or 50ml Sarstedt® or Falcon® tubes should be used for measuring and handling of small solution volumes and the hybridization solution with the RNA probe; they can be considered RNase free. Most solutions (Table 2) can be prepared in advance. Some must be made on the day of usage and are indicated as such.

Paraffin sections for the ISH should be made by collecting 4 to 5 µm cuts of the paraffin block in a DEPC-H₂O water bath to reduce the risk of RNase exposure due to contaminated water. Sections are mounted on plus charged slides. In our experience, sections can be stored for weeks to several months in a regular slide container at room temperature without affecting the mRNA quality. Never allow the tissue to dry during the ISH. This is especially important during

application of hybridization, antibody and chromate solution.

Stepwise day-by-day protocol

(For solutions and materials see Tables 2 and 3).

Day 1

Deparaffination and rehydration. Place slides in the slide holder, incubate for 1 hour at 65 °C then deparaffinize with two Xylene incubations, 5 min each (room temperature). Wash twice with Xylene (5 min) and rehydrate with Ethanol 100% twice, 5 min each, followed by DEPC-H₂O once, 5min.

Protein digestion. The slides are transferred to PBS at 37 °C for 5 min and tissue proteins are then digested by incubation with 10 mg/ml Proteinase K/PBS at 37 °C for 10 min. Enzyme is washed out by retransferring the slides to PBS 37 °C for 5 min.

HCl treatment and Acetylation. Slides are washed in DEPC-H₂O and SSC 2x/DEPC-H₂O for 5 min each then transferred to 0.2 M HCl for 15 min. During these 15 min the Digoxigenin labeled probes are collected from the storage at -80 °C and placed on ice for slow thawing, then the 0.25% acetic anhydride solution is mixed. The incubation chambers are also prepared by placing filter paper on the bottom, moistening it with DEPC-H₂O and covering it with Parafilm®. After the 15 min HCl incubation, slides are washed in 0.1 M TEA-HCl pH 8.0 for 5 min, then acetylated with the 0.25% acetic anhydride / 0.1 M TEA-HCl pH 8.0 solution for 15 min.

Preparation of the probe/hybridization solution. The Digoxigenin probes are mixed with the hybridization solution while the slides are acetylated. We recommend calculating 400 µl of hybridization solution per TMA slide. After estimating and aliquotting the necessary total volume of solution for each probe into an RNase free tube, the Digoxigenin probe is added to a final concentration of 1500 ng probe per 1 ml solution and the mixed solution is stored on ice. Example for a series of 5 TMA slides and 4 regular sections for external controls. Antisense: Mix 3000 µl of hybridization solution (5x400+4x250) and 4500 ng of antisense-RNA-probe. Sense: Mix 1000 µl of hybridization solution (4x250) and 1500 ng of sense-RNA-probe.

Hybridization. After acetylation, slides are placed in SSC 2X. After 5 min the slides are then processed individually as following: The back of each slide and the front areas without tissues are carefully dried with a Kimwipe® and the slide is placed horizontally on the Parafilm® in the hybridization chamber. Enough probe/hybridization solution mix to cover all tissue-areas is now carefully applied to the slide with a pipette (usually 300-400 µl for a TMA). The next slide is now

mRNA ISH of archival tissues

treated until all slides are covered with solution. The chamber is closed, sealed with Parafilm® and incubated O/N at 42 °C. (Note: Some ISH-protocol recommend calculating the “optimal temperature” and/or testing different temperatures. When using our relatively large probes, we observed a good sensitivity and specificity at

42 °C and did not have to optimize the temperature)

Day 2

Post-hybridization wash. The hybridization solution is washed off each slide with 1 to 2ml of SSC 2X using a

Table 2. Solutions required for the ISH.

Day 1 (RNase free solutions)
1) Digoxigenin labeled RNA-Probe / approx. 600 ng per slide (microarray)
2) Xylene (RNA-grade)
3) Ethanol 100% (RNA-grade)
4) DEPC-H ₂ O [add 1ml Diethyl pyrocarbonate per 1l ddH ₂ O, stir overnight and autoclave]
5) PBS 10x [80g NaCl, 2g KCl, 11.5g Na ₂ HPO ₄ ·7H ₂ O, 2g KH ₂ PO ₄ ad 1l DEPC-H ₂ O]
6) PBS 1x [100ml PBS 10x, 900ml DEPC-H ₂ O]
7) Proteinase K / PBS 1x [prepare on Day 1: 2mg Proteinase K (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Germany) in 200ml PBS 1x (final conc. 10 µg/ml)]
8) SSC 20x [3M NaCl, 0.3M Na-citrate in DEPC-H ₂ O; alternatively: commercial stock solution]
9) SSC 2x [100ml SSC 20x, 900ml DEPC-H ₂ O]
10) 0.2M HCl [1 Part 6N HCl, 29 Parts DEPC-H ₂ O]
11) TEA-HCl [dissolve 18.6g Triethanolamine-HCl in 900ml DEPC-H ₂ O, titrate to pH 8,0 with 10N NaOH, ad 1l DEPC-H ₂ O]
12) 0.25% Acetic anhydride/TEA-HCl [prepare on Day 1: 0.5ml Acetic anhydride in 200ml TEA-HCl]
13) Hybridization solution [Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA, Cat-Nr.: H7782; 400 µl/TMA]
Day 2 and 3 (normal solutions)
14) dd-H ₂ O
15) STE buffer [500mM NaCl, 20mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 1mM EDTA in dd-H ₂ O]
16) RNase A / STE buffer [prepare on Day 2: 2g of RNase A in 200ml STE Buffer]
17) SSC 2x [200ml SSC 20x, ad 2 liters dd-H ₂ O]
18) SSC 2x / Formamide [prepare on Day 2: 100ml Formamide, 100ml SSC 2x]
19) SSC 1x [10ml SSC 20x, 190ml dd-H ₂ O]
20) SSC 0.5x [5ml SSC 20x, 195ml dd-H ₂ O]
21) Buffer #1 [100mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 150mM NaCl in dd-H ₂ O, FILTER]
22) 2% Horse Serum / buffer #1 [prepare on Day 2: 4ml of Horse Serum in 196ml buffer #1]
23) antibody solution (calculate 500-700 µl/slide)[prepare on Day 2: dilute in buffer #1: Anti-Digoxigenin-AP Fab fragments (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Cat-Nr: 1 093 274) 1:250, Horse Serum 1:100]
24) Buffer #2 [100mM Tris-HCl pH 9.5, 100mM NaCl, 50mM MgCl ₂ in dd-H ₂ O, FILTER]
25) NBT/BCIP Solution (calculate 500-1000µl / Tissue; light sensitive, wrap in aluminum-foil) [prepare on Day 2: One FAST BCIP/NBT Tablet (Sigma-Aldrich) per 10ml distilled H ₂ O] [alternatively: dilute in buffer #2: 33,75µl / 10ml (3,75mg / 10ml) of NBT (nitroblue tetrazolium) and 35µl / 10ml (1,75mg / 10ml) of BCIP (toluidinium salt)]
26) Buffer #3 [10mM Tris-HCl pH 8,0, 1mM EDTA in dd-H ₂ O; FILTER]
27) 0,5% Tween 20 [1ml Tween 20 in 200ml dd-H ₂ O]

Table 3. Materials and equipment required for the ISH.

1) RNase AWAY® (Molecular BioProducts Inc., San Diego, CA, USA)
2) 200ml plastic containers for the ISH solutions
3) Plastic slide holders for 24 slides
4) Plastic trays to hold slides vertically during the o/n hybridization, the o/n antibody incubation and the NBT/BCIP staining
5) Kimwipes® (Kimberly-Clark Inc., Mississauga, Ontario, CA)
6) Parafilm® (Pechiney Plastic Packaging, Menasha, WI, USA)
7) Plastic – Pasteur pipettes
8) Vacuum system for at least 500 – 1000ml of volume
9) Empty drawer to develop during NBT/BCIP staining
10) Workbench treated with RNase AWAY®
11) Vacuum filter system for buffer #1, #2 and #3 (Corning Inc., Corning, NY, USA)
12) Ice
13) Water bath at 37 °C and 42 °C
14) Oven with adjustable temperatures (65 °C and 52 °C)
15) Incubator at 42 °C for o/n hybridization
16) Mounting medium: Cytoseal 60, low viscosity (Stephens Scientific, Kalamazoo, MI, USA)
17) Cover slips for microscopical slides

plastic Pasteur pipette and the slide is then placed in a slide holder in SSC 2X. Once all slides are collected, they are first transferred to fresh SSC 2X for 5 min (room temperature) then washed twice in SSC 2X at 52 °C for 10 min each.

RNA digestion. It is crucial to remove unbound probe to reduce unspecific background: Slides are placed in STE buffer at 37 °C for 5 min then treated with a solution of 2 mg RNase A in 200 ml STE buffer at 37 °C for 10 min. Washout is performed by STE buffer at 37 °C for 5 min.

Re-fixation. Slides are incubated with SSC 2x/Formamide at 42 °C for 10 min for fixation and crosslinking and then washed with SSC 1X and SSC 0.5X at 42 °C for 5 min each.

Blocking and antibody incubation. After washing the slides for 1 min in buffer #1 (room temperature), blocking is performed with 2% horse serum/buffer #1 for 30 min. (Note: Bovine serum does contain alkaline phosphatase and should not be used.) Slides are individually taken out of the blocking solution and the back and tissue free areas of the front are dried with Kimwipes®. The slide is placed in the hybridization chamber and 500 to 700 ml of antibody solution are pipetted onto the tissue area with a plastic Pasteur pipette. The chamber is sealed, once all slides are processed, and placed horizontally in a refrigerator at 4 °C for O/N incubation.

Day 3

Preparation of the staining solution. The staining solution is prepared by dissolving NBT/BCIP tablets in pure H₂O (one tablet/10 ml H₂O). 1.5 to 2 ml solution will be used per slide. The solution is light sensitive, therefore the tube is wrapped in aluminum foil and stored in a dark drawer. Dissolving is slow and can be enhanced by occasional vortexing.

Antibody washout. The antibody solution is flushed off each slide with 1 to 2ml of buffer #1 using a plastic

Pasteur pipette. The slide is then placed in a slide holder in buffer #1. Once all slides are collected they are first transferred twice to fresh buffer #1 for 5 min each then twice to buffer #2 for 5 min each.

Staining. One slide at a time is taken out of the buffer #2 and the back and tissue free front areas are dried as detailed before. The slide is placed in the chamber and 1 to 2ml of staining solution is applied with a plastic Pasteur pipette. Once all slides are processed, the chamber is placed in a dark drawer until sufficient staining is observed. The time required for developing can range from 30 minutes to several hours. Checking the staining progress of individual slides under a microscope (after which fresh staining solution should be reapplied) can be used to monitor the process. If no sufficient staining is observed even after 2 hours, the slide chambers can alternatively be moved to a refrigerator for developing the tissues O/N at 4 °C. This does often still provide sufficient staining while minimizing unspecific signals.

Terminating the staining and washing. When sufficient staining is observed, slides are washed twice in buffer #2 to remove the NBT/BCIP solution and then transferred to buffer #3 for 10 min. Slides are then washed in 0.5% Tween 20 on a rocker or vertical shaker for 5 min after which they are transferred to a H₂O bucket. The H₂O bucket is carefully flushed under a ddH₂O tub until the Tween is washed out.

Mounting. The slides are placed with their backs down on a filter paper for at least 1 hr to allow complete drying. The dried slides can then be mounted with Cytoseal™ and cover slips.

Results and Discussion

Appearance of ISH staining

Positive staining results will appear as a violet to brown cytoplasmic staining and nuclei appear light or unstained (Fig. 2a). A granulated staining pattern can often be observed in the cytoplasm when the probe

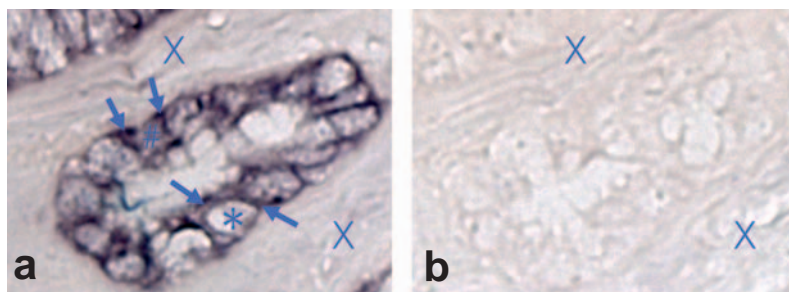


Fig. 2. Representative ISH staining results for PTN-antisense and -sense probe staining. Two adjacent parallel 4 mm sections of paraffin embedded pancreatic adenocarcinoma were hybridized with the antisense (A) or sense (B) Digoxigenin labeled probe for Pleiotrophin. A. The antisense probe shows a strong cytoplasmic staining in cancer cells (arrows). Nuclei appear unstained ("empty" *) or significantly less stained (#) if they are cut tangentially and not through their center. The color may vary from a pink-violet (low intensity) over blue-violet (as shown) to an intense, indigo or brown color, depending on the intensity of the staining and the exact ratio of NBT to BCIP applied to

develop the ISH. B. The sense RNA probe (negative control) shows no signal. Note that tissue structures can still be identified in the sense control, although the slides were not counterstained. In particular, the cancer cell clusters can be easily distinguished from the tumor stroma (X). x 40

targets mitochondrial RNA rather than a cytosolic mRNA. Unspecific staining in collagen structures does sometimes occur but can easily be distinguished due to its blue rather than violet color and the lack of cells and unstained nuclei. Counterstaining with e.g. Hematoxylin is not necessary and is not recommended since the comparable low staining intensity of the ISH may otherwise be difficult to evaluate. In our experience, tissue structures can still be determined, even in completely negative or sense control tissues (Fig. 2b). Although a normal light microscope is used to evaluate the ISH, light intensities should be set lower, compared to the microscopy of standard staining like H&E or immunohistochemistry.

Evaluation of staining for TMA cores or tissues

Staining for each TMA core or full tissue section should always be evaluated in conjunction with the sense controls of that batch. We use a semi quantitative four-tier system: The highest staining intensities and frequencies are defined as “+++”, low but certain staining “+” and intensities, which are average to high “++”. The details of the criteria to evaluate staining results of the individual cores are shown in Table 4. An example of staining of a TMA is shown in Fig. 3 (ISH for PTN).

Although we have found the ISH to be a reliable and stable method, a variation of staining intensities may often be observed inter- and intra-experimentally due to variations in the experimental conditions or different mRNA preservation. Therefore, when using TMAs, each of them is evaluated individually as follows: First the highest, lowest and average staining intensities are identified separately for each slide and then used to determine the criteria for “negative”, “low”, “medium” and “high positive” for that particular TMA. This is necessary, since we sometimes observed that results did vary in the maximum and average staining between different TMAs, in spite of having processed them with the same probe and in the same batch. However, when

adjusting the criteria as detailed, we found that the distributions of the staining results from the individual arrays were identical (all $p > 0.8$ by Mann-Whitney-test). Also, the correlations with biological parameters (including metastasis-status; estrogen-, progesterone-, HER2-receptor-status; stage; grade and survival time) were similar in the statistical analyses, suggesting that the individual calibration of the evaluation criteria for each array is feasible and useful.

Depending on the hypothesis to be tested, further evaluation of the TMA ISH data may vary. In principle, since usually several individual cores will present a given donor tissue, we have to distinguish between results from individual “cores”, where each core contributes a data point and “case” results, where each donor tissue represents one data point derived from all of the cores representing that case.

Obtaining case results from TMA cores

We tested different approaches to generate representative case results, since multiple cores typically represent each case. Initially we classified results according to the percentage of stained cancer cells over all cores of each case as: negative (<5%), focal (5-25%), positive (25-75%), high positive (75%-90%) and very high positive (>90%). Although similar systems have been reported in the literature and these case values did show results similar in most statistical analyses to those for the cores and are thus valid in general, we refined this approach due to the following reasons: (i) the information of the staining intensity, which is included in the core results, was lost; (ii) the comparison with the results of full sections and reference tissues on the TMA, which are often only present as one core, was difficult due to the discrepancy in the evaluation criteria and (iii) if a TMA is evaluated in a double blind fashion (i.e. it is not known which cores do belong to the same case) it is impossible to grade the case with the percentage system. (iv) if individual cores are later eliminated (e.g. due to pathology revision of the contained tissue), all cores of

Table 4. Criteria to evaluate the ISH staining of a TMA core or full tissue section.

<i>Negative staining</i>	
-	no staining observed in this core/section that exceeds the sense control signals
<i>Positive staining</i>	
+	positive staining exceeding sense control signals in at least 20% of the cells
++	above average staining intensity in all cells OR high staining in at least 50% of the cells and “+” intensity in the remainder
+++	high staining intensity in all cells OR very high staining in at least 50% of the cells and “++” intensity in the remainder
<i>N/A</i>	
X	core missing or the tissue of this core is necrotic or autolysed and the RNA is degraded
-NT	the appropriate cells (for example cancer cells in a carcinoma core) are not present and no staining is observed in other cells.
+NT	the appropriate cells (for example cancer cells in a carcinoma core) are not present but staining is observed in other cells.
	Note: if the positive cell type can be identified it is feasible to change the tissue type associated with that core and to evaluate it as “+”, “++” or “+++” for that appropriate tissue type instead of “+NT”.

The system is optimized to assess a gene for which the average expression pattern is hypothesized to be relevant. If “hot spots” are assumed to be critical it should be adapted as needed.

that case must be reevaluated to regain a case value.

Therefore we did test a different approach, taking advantage of one of the main features of TMAs as

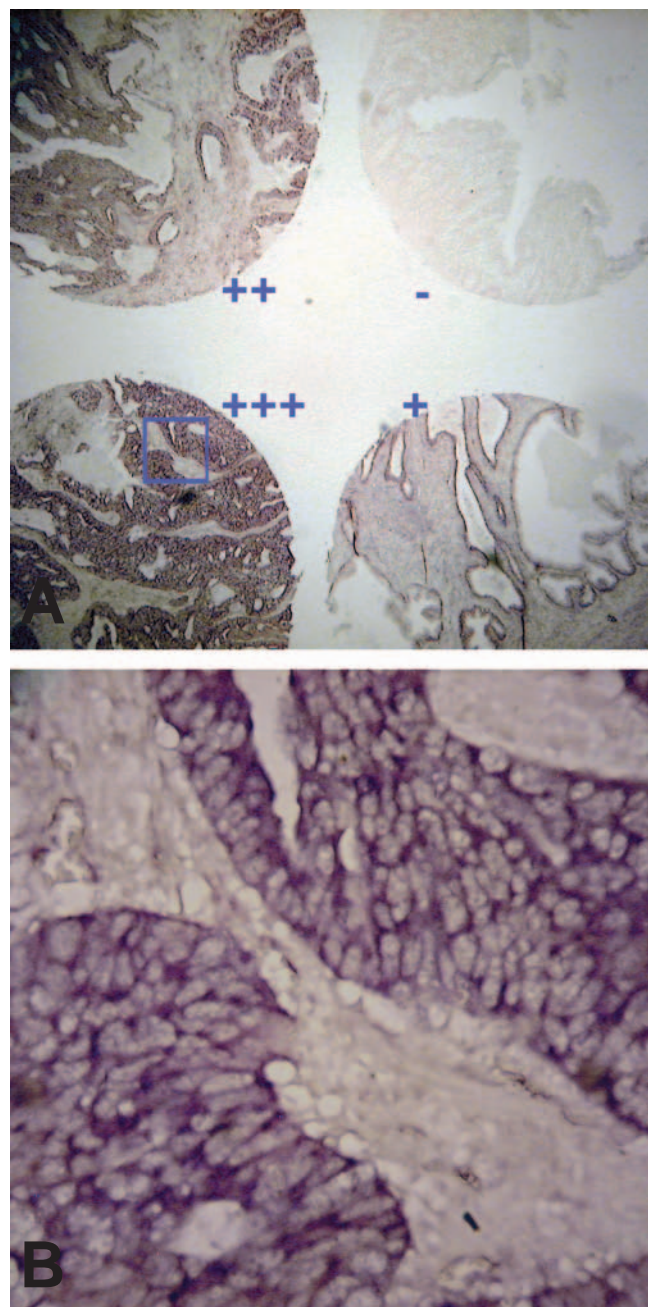


Fig. 3. Example of a TMA stained for Pleiotrophin mRNA by ISH. **A.** Cores from two different primary colon carcinoma (left), a normal colon (top right) and a prostate hyperplasia (bottom right) are shown. Cytoplasmic ISH staining was scored in each core for carcinoma cells (left cores), or epithelial cells, respectively. Scores (- to +++) are shown adjacent to the core. x 4. **B.** Colon carcinoma. 40x magnification of the area marked in panel A. Strong cytoplasmic staining with "empty nuclei" is found in cancer cells whereas no signals are observed in the tumor stroma.

pointed out previously (Bubendorf et al., 2001), namely the fact that the large number of observations generated by a TMA can be assumed to correct an error in the assessment of an individual case. We established an unbiased mathematical approach to generate case values from the cores:

First, we assigned each core a discrete value for the staining results ranging from 1 (for "-") to 4 (for "+++"). Consecutively we assumed that (i) the average of all cores values of a case would be representative for the mRNA expression of that case, (ii) that reassigning the averages of all cases to the same four categories (1-4) could be performed with an appropriate cut-off point and (iii) that the re-categorized values would have to show similar results in the subsequent analysis as the percentage values and the core values. The appropriate cut-off points were chosen for each study by comparing the initial distribution of the core values and the resulting case value distribution aiming for the closest possible match. An example is given in Fig. 4.

To validate our above stated hypotheses we compared the correlation of a) the core values, b) the case values from the percentage classification system and c) the average system with other parameters. In summary, the average system showed similar significant correlations or trends with biological parameters as the core values did (data not shown). The percentage classification results were mostly comparable but often showed less and sometimes no significance. In one of our studies we investigated breast cancer progression tissue microarrays from the CBCTR (NCI/NIH, Bethesda, MD) for the expression of several genes and the protein expression of one of these. We found, after double blind evaluation, that the core values and the average system values could both distinguish between the three groups of breast cancers, present on the TMAs (node negative tumors, node positive tumors and tumors with distant metastases).

We believe that the arithmetic mean with consecutive reclassification is a valid approach to address the relevance of most mRNAs by ISH on TMAs with multiple cores per case. However, there is a caveat: For those genes where "hot spots" are assumed to be crucial, it might be feasible to either focus on areas with maximum expression or to choose the core with maximum staining to represent the case.

Correlation of Protein and mRNA

If both, immunohistochemistry and ISH, are performed on the same TMAs, correlation of protein and mRNA expression is usually performed. For one, this will show the validity of both methods but may also help to identify false positives (e.g. we could frequently observe signals in hepatic cells and kidney tubular cells in the IHC due to endogenous biotin while mRNA expression was not detected). In addition the protein-mRNA correlation can identify interesting subsets: In one of our studies we detected AIB1 mRNA in 45% of

low-grade pancreatic neoplasia in situ (PanIN) by in situ hybridization but the protein was only detectable in 27% (Immunohistochemistry) (Henke et al., 2004). With progression to pancreatic adenocarcinoma, the mRNA expression (74% positive) and protein expression (64% positive) did converge and the comparison of the mRNA and protein expression levels did not show any significant differences. This co-analysis of mRNA and protein expression did thus provide additional information consistent with the idea of AIB1 being increasingly expressed throughout advancing stages of pancreatic malignant progression. It also did show that the mRNA in situ hybridization, detailed in this review, has a high sensitivity. It detected the mRNA of AIB1 in >99.9% of the samples which had a protein staining of “++” or “+++” and still in >85% of those being low positive (“+”) for the protein. In addition, we detected mRNA in a few protein-negative cases especially in the low grade PanIN.

Further analysis of ISH results in relation to other data (biological, medical history, protein or other mRNAs)

When addressing the question of correlation of expression between an mRNA and its protein product or between different mRNAs, it is appropriate to use the results from cores for each mRNA and protein if they

originate from parallel sections of the same TMA block(s). This is feasible since this type of correlation is truly a function of staining of tissue and cells and each core can therefore be seen as a distinct observation, similar to choosing different areas on a regular tissue section. To illustrate this, we stained six sets of parallel TMA sections, each set for a different mRNA. All genes were hypothesized to have a positive correlation with tumor metastasis. Using the “core results” of all six TMAs for a Spearman non-parametric correlation, we observed that expression of all genes did correlate well (all $r > 0.5$, all $p < 0.001$, all $n > 80$) suggesting that all share a correlation with tumor metastasis.

For other evaluations, especially correlation with biological or clinical parameters, it usually is not appropriate to only use the results from cores alone and thus results for cases should be generated. Nevertheless, we recommend evaluating the “core results” in parallel or prior to the “case results” for several reasons:

1. The analysis of the core results with regard to correlation with other parameters is easy as no additional steps to generate case results have to be performed and can often be used to determine if a further analysis is justified.

2. Correlations with biological parameters might be statistically significant for the core results but may sometimes only show a borderline trend for the case

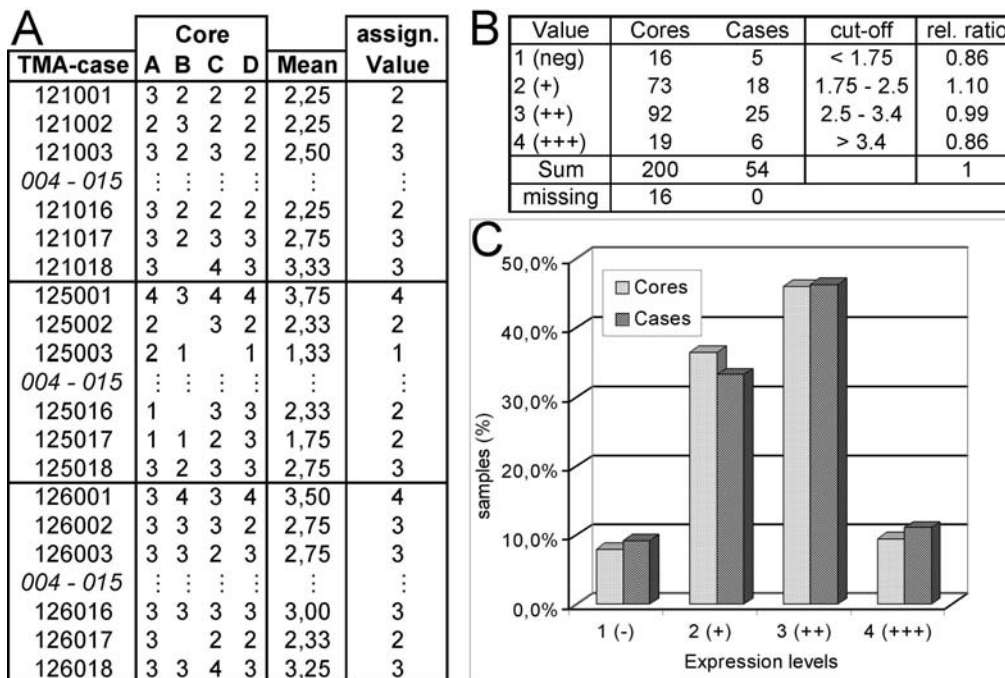


Fig. 4. Pleiotrophin expression in ampullary carcinoma. ISH evaluation of replicate TMA samples from different cases. Ampullary carcinoma TMAs 121, 125 and 126 were stained for pleiotrophin by ISH and each core was evaluated. Each TMA contained samples of 18 different tumors represented by four cores. **A.** Examples for staining evaluation of cores (A-D)-arithmetic mean (mean) and assigned case values are shown in detail for 18 of the 54 cases. Core results ranged from 1: “-”; 2: “+”; 3: “++” to 4: “+++”. Missing values: “ ”. Each line represents one original tumor (TMA-case). The arithmetic mean of the core values is calculated for each and classified as a distinct value (assigned value) of 1, 2, 3 or 4 using cut-off points. **B.** Summary of the core and case values. The cut-off points shown resulted in an optimal match between the

distribution of the core and case values. The ratio of all cores to all cases was set to 1 and used to normalize the ratios for each category (relative ratio). A relative ratio of 1.00 would thus reflect a perfect match. Optimal cut-off points are defined as those, where the resulting relative ratios are closest to 1.00, special emphasis is given to the ratios representing the most data-points (here categories 2 and 3). **C.** Bar graph of the percentage of cores and cases at different expression levels. Each set of columns represents the percent of values within the same category (1(-) to 4(+++)). Note that both groups (cores and cases) show an almost identical distribution.

data. This either indicates that no true correlation exists or, as we have frequently observed, that the case number was too low to achieve significance. A new study with more cases is then needed.

3. A discrepancy between core and case findings could also indicate that the method to define the case results might not be feasible to address the question. Choosing a "hot spot" or a binary classification system rather than the "standard" average based system might clarify this. Therefore, all these systems should then be consecutively evaluated in parallel to the core analysis.

Conclusions

The ISH with Digoxigenin labeled RNA probes is an established method to address the expression of a target RNA in tissues. We have optimized this method for the use with formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded archival tissues using regular sections and TMAs with single or multiple sample cores per case. When using large probes at a high concentration, we achieved good sensitivity while retaining excellent specificity for all of the investigated mRNAs and found the ISH to be a very reliable and stable method, in spite of frequently voiced concerns regarding variable mRNA quality in paraffin sections. We did establish an unbiased evaluation system for TMAs for genes for which a broad expression is assumed to be relevant. This system was valid in our analyses and can be easily adapted to evaluate genes for which "hot spot" expression rather than average expression is critical. Our findings justify the use of the ISH to study the expression of genes in large sample numbers either alone or in conjunction with protein analyses. Our reported method enables investigators to screen such large populations with low experimental effort and costs when using TMAs. We propose that ISH can be used to assess the significance of a gene of interest, before the respective protein can be investigated. The ISH can thus maximize the use of available time and resources by distinguishing early between more and less relevant candidate genes while already providing crucial data to correlate gene expression with biological parameters.

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